Food and Nutrient Intake Differences between Smokers and Non-smokers in the US

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Abstract: Data from the Second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey were analyzed to determine food and nutrient intake differences between current smokers (also categorized as light, moderate, and heavy smokers) and non-smokers. Smokers in several age-race-sex categories have lower intakes of vitamin C, folate, fiber, and vitamin A than non-smokers, and intake tended to decrease as cigarette consumption increased, particularly for vitamin C, fiber, and folate. Smokers were less likely to have consumed

vegetables, fruits (particularly fruits and vegetables high in vitamins C and A), high fiber grains, low fat milk, and vitamin and mineral supplements than non-smokers. A negative linear trend was found between smoking intensity and intake of several categories of fruits and vegetables. These data suggest that the high cancer risk associated with smoking is compounded by somewhat lower intake of nutrients and foods which are thought to be cancer protective. (Am J Public Health 1990; 80:1323-1329.)

Introduction

Cigarette smoking is the biggest single health habit that contributes to preventable chronic disease in the United States especially cancer of the lung, larynx, oral cavity, and esophagus as well as coronary artery disease and emphysema. Other cancers, such as bladder, kidney, pancreas, cervix, and stomach are also associated with cigarette consumption. Cigarette use in the US has been estimated to be a causative factor in 30 percent of all cancer deaths and in 87 percent of all lung cancer deaths. It has also been estimated that diet is a causative factor in 35 percent (with a possible range of 10–70 percent) of all cancer deaths. While smoking, food, and alcohol consumption each are lifestyle practices associated with cancer risk, when they occur together some authors assert they act synergistically to produce risks which are greater than the sum of their parts.³

Compared to non-smokers, smokers consume more alcohol and coffee, take more risks, have more sexual partners, exercise less, sleep less, take vitamin and mineral supplements less, and skip breakfast more. 4-11 Furthermore, several of these poor health habits are more likely to occur with increasing average number of cigarettes smoked per day.8

Among smokers, those with either higher dietary intakes of vitamin and/or carotene or higher serum carotenoids are at reduced risk for lung cancer,¹²⁻²⁵ and several studies have examined the vitamin A, carotenoid, or energy intake differences between smokers and non-smokers.²⁶⁻³⁰ A recent study showed an inverse association between intake of vitamin C and smoking.³¹ Only one study³² of 45-59 year old men enrolled in a prospective heart disease trial in Wales, however, examined total nutrient intake differences between smokers and non-smokers, and smokers were found to have lower intakes of most nutrients.

Understanding the dietary patterns of those who smoke compared to those who do not smoke is important for health professionals seeking to assess disease risk and educate individuals regarding healthy lifestyles. We used data from a large nationally representative survey, the Second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES II),³³ conducted from 1976–80, to determine whether smokers

significantly differ from non-smokers in both nutrient and food intake.

Methods

NHANES II used a probability sample of the civilian non-institutionalized US population ages 6 months to 74 years. The complex sample design and sample weights are described in detail elsewhere.³⁴ Mobile examination centers employing trained teams of physicians, nurses, dietitians, and technicians traveled to and collected data from 64 sites throughout the country.

NHANES II 24-hour dietary recall data from 11,260 adults ages 19–74 years were used to assess dietary intake. For these analyses, races other than Black or White were excluded because of small sample sizes. Also excluded were individuals (N = 280) with imputed, surrogate, or unreliable 24-hours recall data. Trained interviewers collected dietary intake data from the day before the interview. Three-dimensional food portion models were used to help individuals accurately report portion sizes.³⁵ Dietary data were coded by the interviewers within 72 hours of data collection and analyzed for nutrient content using current nutrient values. Nutrient values for folate and dietary fiber, however, were not available on NHANES II tapes and were added later by Subar, et al,³⁶ and Lanza, et al,³⁷ respectively.

A smoking history was obtained from all subjects. Individuals were placed into categories of current, former, and never smokers, and current smokers were divided into categories of light, moderate, and heavy smokers based upon reported average use of 1–14, 15–24, or \geq 25 cigarettes/day, respectively. Initial analyses showed few differences in nutrient or food intakes from 24-hour recall data between never and former smokers and therefore they were combined, creating a group of current non-smokers. Individuals who were not cigarette smokers but smoked either pipes (N = 63) or cigars (N = 140) <6/week, and <3/week, respectively, were included as non-smokers because usage was considered too infrequent to warrant exclusion. Frequent pipe or cigar users (N = 398) were excluded from the analyses.

Nutrient intake differences between current smokers and non-smokers, and among current non-smokers and light, moderate, and heavy smokers in the 24-hour recall data set were examined by race, sex, and broad age groups (19–29, 30–54, and 55–74 years). Differences in food intake were determined using food groups developed by Patterson and Block.³⁸ The food groups created were based upon the

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interim dietary guidelines by the National Research Council's report, Diet, Nutrition and Cancer,39 and those of the American Cancer Society. 40 An inclusive "all vegetables" category was developed as well as the following vegetable subcategories: cruciferous vegetables (i.e. broccoli, cauliflower, brussels sprouts, cabbage), deep yellow vegetables (carrots, winter squash, sweet potatoes), fiber-rich vegetables (dried peas, beans, corn), and "garden vegetables" (all vegetables except white potatoes, dried peas and beans, and salad). Fruits and vegetables were also subdivided into categories of those high in either vitamin A (i.e. carrots, spinach, cantaloupe) or vitamin C (i.e. oranges, grapefruit, broccoli). A complete listing of foods in each category has been published.³⁸ Regardless of portion size or numer of servings, individuals were described as having consumed or not consumed food(s) within each food group based upon 24-hour recall data. Preliminary analyses of food group intake indicated that such coding yielded few differences by sex and, therefore, individuals were categorized by age and race only.

In addition to univariate analyses described above, multivariate analyses of nutrient and food intake were performed adjusting for age, kcal/daily, poverty index ratio or PIR (an income status index which takes into account household income, family size, and the income necessary to maintain a family at the time the study was conducted), and sex. These analyses were performed separately for Whites and Blacks because of the known racial differences in consumption of foods and nutrients.⁴¹

Separate analyses by sex-race categories were performed to determine whether smoking category based upon average daily cigarette consumption, as measured in half packs of cigarettes consumed, was linearly related to intake of nutrients or food groups. Each nutrient or food group, acting as a dependent variable in the model which adjusted for age, examined the effect of half packs of cigarettes consumed. For purposes of these analyses, quartiles of nutrient intake by race-sex groups were used.

Statistical analyses were performed using SAS⁴² with appropriate population weights permitting inferences about the total adult US Black and White population. Standard

errors were calculated using SESUDAAN,⁴³ a program designed to account for the complex survey design. The SURREGR⁴⁴ program for complex samples was used in multivariate analysis for the White population, but because of the lack of dispersion of Blacks throughout strata and primary sampling units (PSU), an unweighted regression analysis was used for Blacks. Logistic regressions were performed using the RTIlogt program.⁴⁵ This application uses the Taylor expansion series to estimate the variances.

Results

Food Group Intake Differences

Analyses by age, race, sex, and current smoking status showed a larger proportion of Black men (55 percent) smoked during the period of the NHANES II study than in any other sex-race category, followed by White men (43 percent), White women (34 percent), and Black women (34 percent). In all age-race-sex groups, approximately 50 percent of all smokers are 30–54 years of age, while approximately one-third and 15 percent are ages 19–29 and 55–74 years, respectively.

Tables 1 and 2 present univariate analyses of food group intake of smokers and non-smokers by age for Whites and Blacks, respectively. With few exceptions, intake of vegetable categories except "starchy fibrous" is moderately higher among non-smokers as compared to smokers in all age-race groups. Multivariate analyses which adjusted for age, kcal/day, PIR, and sex confirmed these results among Whites. Both univariate and multivariate analyses show that non-smokers of both races have a strikingly higher intake of fruits compared to smokers with percentage differences as high as 19 percent (unadjusted) for 19-29 and 30-54 year old Whites, and 55-74 year old Blacks. For the categories of high fiber grains and fruits or vegetables high in either vitamin C or vitamin A, non-smokers in all age-race categories have a greater intake than smokers, a finding confirmed after multivarate adjustment. For high fiber grains, however, it should be noted that Blacks have much lower intakes than Whites with the highest intakes among Black non-smokers equal to or less than the lowest intakes of White smokers.

TABLE 1—Weighted Percent of White Subjects Consuming Food(s) Over a 24-Hour Period (NHANES II) by Age and Smoking Status

| Food Group | Whites 19-29 years | | | | Whites 30–54 years | | | | Whites 55-74 years | | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|--------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|--------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|--------|-----------|
| | Non- Smoker | 95% Cl ^a | Smoker | 95% CI | Non- Smoker | 95% CI | Smoker | 95% CI | Non- Smoker | 95% CI | Smoker | 95% CI |
| All Vegetables | 84.4 | 82.6,86.1 | 79.0 | 76.7,81.3 | 85.9 | 84.4,87.4 | 81.0 | 79.2,82.9 | 86.3 | 84.7.87.9 | 82.9 | 79.9,86.0 |
| Garden | 49.7 | 47.0,52.4 | 42.7 | 39.3,46.1 | 54.2 | 51.4.57.0 | 48.5 | 46.4,50.5 | 58.4 | 55.9,61.0 | 51.9 | 48.3,55.5 |
| Deep Yellow | 9.2 | 7.4,11.1 | 6.3 | 4.4,8.1 | 11.6 | 9.8,13.4 | 8.7 | 6.8,10.6 | 13.7 | 12.2,15.2 | 11.0 | 8.8,13.2 |
| Cruciferous | 15.3 | 13.4,17.2 | 12.0 | 9.9,14.1 | 20.0 | 18.5,21.5 | 15.9 | 13.4,18.3 | 21.2 | 19.3,23.0 | 18.4 | 16.3,20.4 |
| Starchy Fibrous | 18.8 | 16.0,21.5 | 18.8 | 15.9.21.7 | 19.1 | 17.2,21.1 | 18.2 | 16.2,20.2 | 18.0 | 15.4,20.5 | 17.9 | 15.2,20.6 |
| Salad [*] | 48.6 | 45.3,52.0 | 39.4 | 35.7,43.0 | 50.5 | 48.4,52.6 | 46.7 | 43.6,49.9 | 49.7 | 47.3.52.1 | 46.1 | 42.4,49.8 |
| All Fruits | 59.3 | 56.4,62.3 | 39.6 | 35.7,43.5 | 63.9 | 61.7,66.1 | 45.4 | 42.4,48.5 | 76.8 | 74.8,78.7 | 63.3 | 60.0,66.5 |
| Fruits/Vegetables | | • | | | | , | | , | | , | 55.5 | 00.0,00.0 |
| High in Vitamin A | 18.4 | 15.7.21.1 | 13.3 | 11.5,15.1 | 23.2 | 21.2,25.2 | 15.9 | 13.8,18.1 | 26.1 | 24.1,28.1 | 20.8 | 17.9,23.7 |
| High in Vitamin C | 25.6 | 22.5,28.7 | 19.5 | 16.7,22.3 | 31.6 | 29.2,34.1 | 20.4 | 17.9,22.9 | 36.5 | 33.2.39.7 | 27.6 | 24.1,31.1 |
| High Fiber Grains | 16.6 | 13.1,20.0 | 9.9 | 6.8,12.9 | 18.1 | 15.4,20.9 | 11.1 | 8.4,13.7 | 25.5 | 23.1,27.9 | 20.0 | 16.1,23.8 |
| Red Meat | 59.5 | 56.4,62.6 | 60.5 | 57.5,63.4 | 56.0 | 53.8,58.3 | 56.8 | 54.1,59.5 | 50.2 | 48.2.52.1 | 50.1 | 46.1,54.1 |
| Poultry/Fish | 31.8 | 29.0,34.6 | 29.3 | 26.7,31.9 | 33.0 | 30.5,35.5 | 28.7 | 25.7,31.8 | 34.8 | 32.6,37.1 | 30.4 | 26.8,33.9 |
| Bacon/Luncheon | | ,- | | | | , | | | | | | _0.0,00.0 |
| Meat | 36.2 | 33.6.38.9 | 41.2 | 37.6,44.7 | 42.4 | 39.6,45.2 | 46.6 | 43.1.50.0 | 41.4 | 38.6.44.2 | 44.9 | 40.9,49.0 |
| Whole Milk | 41.8 | 38.5,45.0 | 47.6 | 43.7,51.4 | 40.5 | 37.8,43.1 | 43.3 | 39.7,46.9 | 39.6 | 36.7.42.6 | 46.0 | 41.8,50.3 |
| Low Fat Milk | 30.2 | 26.2,34.3 | 22.0 | 18.1,25.8 | 28.7 | 25.9,31.6 | 20.3 | 17.0,23.7 | 34.5 | 31.7,37.4 | 24.2 | 20.2,28.3 |
| Use Supplements ^b | 24.3 | 22.0,26.6 | 15.6 | 13.3,17.9 | 24.9 | 22.4,27.3 | 20.8 | 18.0,23.6 | 34.6 | 32.1.37.1 | 29.3 | 25.9,32.8 |

a) CI = Confidence interval.

b) Data based upon reported "regular" usage of vitamin/mineral supplements.

TABLE 2—Weighted Percent of Black Subjects Consuming Food(s) Over a 24-Hour Period (NHANES II) by Age and Smoking Status

| Food Group | Blacks 19–29 years | | | | Blacks 30-54 years | | | | Blacks 55-74 years | | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|--------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|--------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|--------|-----------|
| | Non- Smoker | 95% Clª | Smoker | 95% CI | Non- Smoker | 95% CI | Smoker | 95% CI | Non- Smoker | 95% CI | Smoker | 95% CI |
| All Vegetables | 77.5 | 69.4,85.6 | 79.6 | 72.2,87.0 | 77.8 | 72.2,83.4 | 70.6 | 63.1,78.1 | 80.2 | 74.2.86.1 | 70.6 | 62.5,78.6 |
| Garden | 43.8 | 34.3,53.3 | 42.1 | 33.3,50.9 | 52.5 | 41.8,63.3 | 41.2 | 33.1,49.3 | 58.6 | 50.1,67.1 | 43.6 | 34.9,52.4 |
| Deep Yellow | 6.3 | 2.6,9.9 | 6.4 | 2.4,10.4 | 8.7 | 2.3,15.0 | 7.4 | 4.0,10.8 | 17.8 | 12.8,22.8 | 6.5 | 3.0,10.1 |
| Cruciferous | 21.1 | 12.5,29.7 | 18.9 | 12.0,25.9 | 23.7 | 13.4,33.9 | 21.3 | 15.1,27.5 | 28.4 | 20.7,36.2 | 22.6 | 11.8,33.4 |
| Starchy Fibrous | 22.5 | 18.3,26.7 | 18.3 | 11.4,25.3 | 17.6 | 12.7,22.5 | 13.2 | 8.5,17.9 | 18.8 | 11.0.26.5 | 27.0 | 17.8,36.2 |
| Salad | 34.5 | 27.7,41.3 | 25.7 | 18.7,32.6 | 26.7 | 19.8,33.7 | 26.4 | 21.5,31.4 | 25.1 | 17.7,32.5 | 17.1 | 9.6,24.6 |
| All Fruits | 62.0 | 54.4,69.5 | 47.8 | 38.0,57.5 | 61.2 | 53.4,69.0 | 49.2 | 40.6,57.8 | 64.0 | 56.0,72.0 | 45.3 | 37.2,53.5 |
| Fruits/Vegetables | | Ţ | | , | | **** | | | | , | | , |
| High in Vitamin A | 21.6 | 13.6,29.7 | 19.3 | 12.4,26.2 | 26.2 | 16.1,36.2 | 25.0 | 17.6,32.4 | 38.6 | 30.9,46.3 | 22.7 | 12.2,33.2 |
| High in Vitamin C | 34.7 | 26.9,42.6 | 30.7 | 23.8,37.6 | 33.5 | 25.3,41.6 | 29.7 | 23.9,35.5 | 44.7 | 35.3,54.0 | 32.7 | 22.6,42.8 |
| High Fiber Grains | 8.9 | 5.0,12.8 | 4.9 | 1.6,8.2 | 11.6 | 6.5,16.6 | 6.4 | 3.0,9.8 | 10.9 | 6.9,14.8 | 5.8 | 0.0*,11.9 |
| Red Meat | 58.2 | 49.6,66.8 | 56.3 | 49.7.62.8 | 44.8 | 38.8.50.8 | 45.9 | 38.4,53.4 | 35.6 | 28.7.42.4 | 35.1 | 27.2,42.9 |
| Poultry/Fish | 47.4 | 36.5,58.4 | 41.2 | 31.7,50.7 | 55.3 | 48.5,62.1 | 48.2 | 40.3,56.2 | 52.2 | 44.4.60.1 | 47.8 | 36.0,59.5 |
| Bacon/Luncheon | | , | | , | 55.5 | , | | .0.0,00.2 | 02.2 | , | 17.0 | 00.0,00.0 |
| Meat | 40.4 | 34.5,46.2 | 47.8 | 37.1,58.6 | 41.8 | 35.6,48.0 | 48.2 | 41.3,55.2 | 45.7 | 39.6.51.9 | 52.8 | 43.8,61.8 |
| Whole Milk | 41.4 | 34.8.48.1 | 35.0 | 28.2,41.7 | 27.1 | 18.0,36.2 | 32.9 | 24.6,41.2 | 33.8 | 24.7,42.9 | 33.6 | 24.4,42.8 |
| Low-Fat Milk | 3.5 | 0.3,6.8 | 2.7 | 0.3,5.2 | 18.7 | 11.9,25.5 | 4.5 | 1.1,7.9 | 15.7 | 9.1,22.3 | 10.2 | 4.3,16.0 |
| Use Supplements ^b | 13.3 | 8.9,17.7 | 13.6 | 7.9,19.2 | 23.8 | 16.3,31.3 | 12.4 | 8.5,16.3 | 2.0 | 14.5,25.5 | 16.6 | 9.1,24.0 |

a) CI = Confidence interval.

Univariate analyses (Tables 1 and 2) showed that nonsmokers compared to smokers tended to consume equal amounts of red meat, but more poultry/fish and skim milk, and less bacon/luncheon meats, and whole milk. These findings were confirmed in the multivariate model. In addition, among Whites and most Blacks, non-smokers were more likely to take vitamin/mineral supplements. Blacks, however, were low supplement users overall.

Nutrient Intake Differences

Tables 3 and 4 present, for Whites and Blacks, respectively, univariate analyses of mean intake data for energy, seven nutrients, dietary fiber, and cholesterol by age, sex, and current smoking status. Analyses were also performed for calcium, iron, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, oleic acid, and linoleic acid, but results showed few or no differences by smoking status (data available upon request to author). As found in past research of the NHANES II data set,²⁷ smokers tended to consume more kcal than non-smokers. Few intake differences between smokers and non-smokers were found with respect to fat, protein, carbohydrate, and cholesterol.

Mean vitamin C intake is higher among non-smokers in all age-race-sex categories (Tables 3 and 4) with the difference being most striking among White males. After controlling for age, kcal, PIR, and sex, a negative association remained between smoking and vitamin C consumption for both races.

Univariate analyses of vitamin A intake are inconsistent among age-sex-race categories with non-smokers consuming greater or equal amounts compared to smokers. In multivariate analysis, however, a negative association was found between smoking and vitamin A intake among Whites.

With the exception of older Black males, there is a tendency among all age-race-sex groups for smokers to consume less folate and dietary fiber than non-smokers (Tables 3 and 4). After adjustment, these results were confirmed for dietary fiber in both Blacks and Whites and for folate in Whites only.

Linear Trends in Nutrient and Food Intake

Using multiple linear regression, nutrient intake was examined for a linear relationship between sex-specific quintile of nutrient intake and cigarette consumption, as measured in half packs of cigarettes consumed. No trends were found among Blacks for any food or nutrients after adjusting for age. In Whites, after adjusting for age, negative associations between cigarette consumption and both vitamins C and A were found for males ($\beta = -0.11$ s.e. = 0.015, $\beta = -0.06$ s.e. = 0.012, respectively) and females ($\beta = -0.14$ s.e. = 0.014, $\beta = -0.08$ s.e. = 0.014, respectively). Similar negative associations were found for folate among males ($\beta = -0.06$ s.e. = 0.014) and females ($\beta = -0.09$ s.e. = 0.017) and for dietary fiber among males ($\beta = -0.09$ s.e. = 0.015) and females ($\beta = -0.11$ s.e. = 0.017). A positive association was found between cigarette consumption and intake of saturated fatty acids for males ($\beta = 0.04$ s.e. = 0.013).

For food group intake adjusted for age, a negative linear trend existed between increasing cigarette consumption and intake of any vegetable (males $\beta = -0.10$ s.e. = 0.028 and females $\beta = -0.\overline{10}$ s.e. = 0.029), garden vegetables (males β = -0.09 s.e. = 0.020 and females $\beta = -0.10$ s.e. = 0.027), any fruit (males $\beta = -0.22$ s.e. = 0.027 and females $\beta =$ -0.34 s.e. = 0.030), fruits or vegetables high in vitamin A (males $\beta = -0.13$ s.e. = 0.035 and females $\beta = -0.18$ s.e. = 0.045), fruits or vegetables high in vitamin C (males β = -0.21 s.e. = 0.031 and females $\beta = -0.19$ s.e. = 0.035), high fiber grains (males $\beta = -0.23$ s.e. = 0.038 and females $\beta =$ -0.15 s.e. = 0.048), low fat milk (males $\beta = -0.17$ s.e. = 0.025 and females $\beta = -0.22$ s.e. = 0.040), and vitamin and mineral supplements among all Whites. In White males a negative association was found between increasing consumption of cigarettes and salad ($\beta = -0.08$ s.e. = 0.018), any cruciferous vegetable ($\beta = -0.09$ s.e. 0.032), and poultry and fish $(\beta = -0.07 \text{ s.e.} = 0.023)$.

Discussion

Several limitations of this study should be mentioned. Twenty-four recalls are considered suitable for the study of

b) Data based upon reported "regular" usage of vitamin/mineral supplements.

^{*}Lower limit truncated to 0.0 from a negative value.

TABLE 3—Weighted Mean Nutrient Intake for White Subjects from NHANES II 24-Hour Recall Data by Sex and Smoking Status

| Nutrient | | White | e Men | | White Women | | | | | |
|---------------------|----------------|---------------------|--------|-----------|----------------|-----------|--------|-----------|--|--|
| | Non- Smoker | 95% Cl ^a | Smoker | 95% CI | Non- Smoker | 95% CI | Smoker | 95% CI | | |
| Ages 19–29 years | | | | | | | | | | |
| Energy kcal | 2947 | 2790,3105 | 2997 | 2868,3127 | 1667 | 1614,1720 | 1679 | 1603,1755 | | |
| Protein g | 118 | 112,125 | 112 | 107,118 | 66 | 64,68 | 61 | 57,66 | | |
| Carbohydrate g | 315 | 300,330 | 313 | 297,330 | 193 | 186,200 | 191 | 182,201 | | |
| Fat g | 122 | 114,129 | 118 | 111,125 | 68 | 66,71 | 66 | 63,70 | | |
| Saturated fat g | 44 | 41,47 | 44 | 42,47 | 24 | 23,25 | 24 | 22,25 | | |
| Cholesterol mg | 463 | 422,505 | 448 | 417,479 | 268 | 252,284 | 251 | 226,275 | | |
| Vitamin A IU | 6000 | 5368,6631 | 4529 | 4155,4903 | 4582 | 4156,5007 | 3810 | 3142,4477 | | |
| Vitamin C mg | 135 | 120,150 | 97 | 86,108 | 96 | 88,104 | 86 | 74,98 | | |
| Folate µg | 349 | 326,372 | 307 | 285,330 | 212 | 201,223 | 182 | 167,198 | | |
| Fiber g | 14.7 | 13.6,15.7 | 12.4 | 11.4,13.4 | 9.8 | 9.1,10.5 | 8.2 | 7.6,8.8 | | |
| Ages 30–54 years | | | | | | | | | | |
| Energy kcal | 2444 | 2340,2548 | 2569 | 2493,2645 | 1535 | 1488,1582 | 1591 | 1542,1641 | | |
| Protein g | 97 | 93,101 | 99 | 96,102 | 62 | 60,65 | 60 | 58,63 | | |
| Carbohydrate g | 261 | 248,275 | 261 | 254,269 | 173 | 168,178 | 169 | 163,175 | | |
| Fat g | 102 | 98,107 | 108 | 104,112 | 63 | 61,66 | 68 | 65,70 | | |
| Saturated fat g | 37 | 35,39 | 40 | 38,41 | 22 | 21,23 | 24 | 23,25 | | |
| Cholesterol mg | 441 | 412,469 | 453 | 424,482 | 284 | 265,302 | 297 | 276,318 | | |
| Vitamin A IU | 5796 | 5112,6480 | 5926 | 4854,6997 | 5567 | 4726,6409 | 4204 | 3676,4732 | | |
| Vitamin C mg | 110 | 103,117 | 88 | 80,95 | 103 | 95,111 | 70 | 63,76 | | |
| Folate µg | 287 | 270,305 | 274 | 256,292 | 216 | 203,229 | 184 | 171,198 | | |
| Fiber g | 13.9 | 13.0,14.7 | 12.2 | 11.3,13.1 | 10.2 | 9.7,10.6 | 8.2 | 7.8,8.6 | | |
| Ages 55–74 years | | | | | | | | | | |
| Energy kcal | 1998 | 1955,2042 | 2010 | 1942,2078 | 1360 | 1329,1391 | 1390 | 1336,1445 | | |
| Protein g | 81 | 79,83 | 78 | 75,82 | 54 | 52,55 | 54 | 51,57 | | |
| Carbohydrate g | 218 | 212,224 | 208 | 199,217 | 163 | 158,167 | 154 | 146,161 | | |
| Fat g | 82 | 79,85 | 85 | 81,89 | 54 | 52,55 | 57 | 54,60 | | |
| Saturated fat g | 29 | 28,30 | 31 | 30,33 | 18 | 18,19 | 20 | 19,21 | | |
| Cholesterol mg | 396 | 374,418 | 433 | 410,456 | 252 | 242,262 | 255 | 239,272 | | |
| Vitamin A IU | 6320 | 5824,6816 | 5990 | 5278,6702 | 5426 | 5000,5851 | 5225 | 4575,5874 | | |
| Vitamin C mg | 111 | 104,118 | 88 | 79,97 | 109 | 103,115 | 93 | 81,105 | | |
| Folate µg | 281 | 269,293 | 255 | 237,272 | 217 | 209,224 | 200 | 187,213 | | |
| Fiber g | 13.1 | 12.5,13.7 | 11.9 | 11.0.12.9 | 10.8 | 10.6,11.1 | 9.1 | 8.5,9.8 | | |

a) CI = Confidence interval.

group but not individual means.46 At least one investigator, however, has suggested that the bias due to reporting error inherent in the method may be greater than the difference detected between groups.⁴⁷ Given the large size and scope of NHANES II, the 24-hour recall data are likely to be appropriate for the group analysis presented here, but should be viewed with caution because of potential bias. In particular, conclusions regarding nutrients known to have large variability (such as vitamin A) may be subject to question when small groups are examined.⁴⁷ Because the number of Blacks sampled in NHANES II is relatively small in comparison to Whites, the results for Blacks cannot be viewed with the same degree of confidence. Finally, the coding of intake of food groups which is based upon mentions from the recalls yields no information regarding portion size and, therefore, is useful but imprecise quantitatively.

Smoking and diet are among the top 10 risk factors thought to cause the majority of disease in the US.⁴⁸ Our findings suggest that there are important dietary differences between smokers and non-smokers, all tending toward unhealthy patterns. Surprisingly few differences by current smoking status were found for fat, saturated fat, and cholesterol, dietary variables associated with coronary heart disease. Smokers did, however, consume less poultry/fish and low fat milk and more whole milk and luncheon meats than non-smokers. With respect to cancer prevention, however,

there is interest not only in the role of fat, but also in the roles of fruits, vegetables, fiber, vitamin A/carotenoids, vitamin C, and folate. For all these foods or dietary constituents, we found that smokers, in general, consume less than non-smokers, with vitamin C/fruit intake showing the greatest and most consistent difference across all age-sex-race groups.

Our findings with respect to vitamin C and fruits are intriguing for several reasons. First, vitamin C is thought to protect against cancer through reduction functions which serve to both prevent carcinogens from forming and decrease the carcinogenic effects of certain chemical agents and through the enhancement of host resistance.⁴⁹ Second, several studies have shown that smokers have lower serum vitamin C levels than non-smokers, and that vitamin C turnover in smokers is higher than in non-smokers.31,50-52 Several investigators have suggested, therefore, that smokers have increased vitamin C requirements. While mean vitamin C intake data suggest that smokers are meeting their Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) for vitamin C (60 mg),53 this level may not be high enough to counteract the increased vitamin C turnover resulting from their smoking habit. Our data suggest that this very group, which requires more vitamin C, is consuming significantly less. While we do not account for vitamin C intake from supplements, the data show that smokers are less likely to be taking supplements than non-smokers. Third, our vitamin C and fruit results are

TABLE 4—Weighted Mean Nutrient Intake for Black Subjects from NHANES II 24-Hour Recall Data by Sex and Smoking Status

| Nutrient | | Black | Men | | Black Women | | | | | |
|---------------------|----------------|---------------------|--------|-----------|----------------|-----------|--------|-----------|--|--|
| | Non- Smoker | 95% Cl ^a | Smoker | 95% CI | Non- Smoker | 95% CI | Smoker | 95% CI | | |
| Ages 19–29 years | | | | | | | | | | |
| Energy kcal | 2603 | 2247,2958 | 2796 | 2348,3244 | 1715 | 1576,1855 | 1731 | 1573,1889 | | |
| Protein g | 102 | 88,116 | 110 | 76,145 | 67 | 62,72 | 61 | 55,67 | | |
| Carbohydrate g | 281 | 241,320 | 281 | 253,308 | 202 | 176,227 | 211 | 187,235 | | |
| Fat g | 110 | 91,129 | 114 | 87,140 | 71 | 67,76 | 67 | 61,74 | | |
| Saturated fat g | 38 | 31,44 | 42 | 30,54 | 25 | 23,28 | 23 | 20,26 | | |
| Cholesterol mg | 487 | 396,578 | 547 | 360,735 | 321 | 269,372 | 341 | 298,383 | | |
| Vitamin A IU | 7973 | 2410,13536 | 6530 | 4701,8358 | 3923 | 3306,4539 | 3987 | 2829,5145 | | |
| Vitamin C mg | 129 | 98,160 | 113 | 89,138 | 108 | 79,136 | 107 | 84,130 | | |
| Folate µg | 302 | 248,356 | 247 | 219,274 | 194 | 160,227 | 188 | 156,220 | | |
| Fiber g | 12.8 | 10.4,15.2 | 10.2 | 8.9,11.5 | 8.3 | 7.3,9.3 | 7.7 | 6.4,9.0 | | |
| Ages 30–54 years | | | | | | | | | | |
| Energy kcal | 2006 | 1784,2228 | 2369 | 2140,2598 | 1391 | 1268,1514 | 1328 | 1239,1418 | | |
| Protein g | 81 | 70,92 | 88 | 81,95 | 55 | 50,59 | 52 | 47,58 | | |
| Carbohydrate g | 223 | 204,242 | 229 | 209,249 | 159 | 143,176 | 145 | 129,160 | | |
| Fat g | 82 | 70,94 | 93 | 80,106 | 57 | 51,63 | 56 | 49,62 | | |
| Saturated fat g | 28 | 24,33 | 33 | 28,39 | 20 | 17,22 | 19 | 17,21 | | |
| Cholesterol mg | 514 | 373,655 | 472 | 411,533 | 291 | 252,331 | 305 | 262,349 | | |
| Vitamin A IU | 10204* | 6004,14405 | 4943 | 3225,6661 | 4503 | 3528,5478 | 6008 | 4498,7518 | | |
| Vitamin C mg | 133 | 89,177 | 104 | 74,133 | 96 | 76,116 | 71 | 59,82 | | |
| Folate µg | 264 | 208,319 | 213 | 195,232 | 173 | 153,193 | 155 | 140,170 | | |
| Fiber g | 12.7 | 10.3,15.1 | 9.3 | 8.4,10.4 | 7.5 | 6.8,8.2 | 7.2 | 5.9,8.5 | | |
| Ages 55-74 years | | | | | | | | | | |
| Energy kcal | 1751 | 1579,1924 | 1764 | 1617,1912 | 1255 | 1167,1343 | 1341 | 1158,1524 | | |
| Protein g | 69 | 62,76 | 68 | 62,75 | 51 | 47,54 | 55 | 45,64 | | |
| Carbohydrate g | 191 | 168,214 | 177 | 161,193 | 150 | 138,162 | 158 | 141,176 | | |
| Fat g | 71 | 63,80 | 73 | 64,83 | 50 | 45,55 | 53 | 45,64 | | |
| Saturated fat q | 25 | 22,29 | 27 | 23,30 | 17 | 15,19 | 18 | 15,22 | | |
| Cholesterol mg | 378 | 342,415 | 420 | 363,477 | 273 | 231,315 | 261 | 206,317 | | |
| Vitamin A IU | 6727 | 4632,8821 | 5591 | 4048,7134 | 7667 | 5592,9741 | 4718 | 2430,7006 | | |
| Vitamin C mg | 98 | 76,121 | 79 | 62,95 | 114 | 100,129 | 105 | 61,150 | | |
| Folate µg | 216 | 186,246 | 241 | 190,292 | 190 | 156,223 | 175 | 143,208 | | |
| Fiber a | 11.8 | 9.8,13.9 | 10.1 | 7.8,12.5 | 9.0 | 7.9,10.1 | 9.4 | 7.9,10.9 | | |

a) CI = Confidence interval.

consistent with research suggesting that smoking (via nicotine) decreases the desire for sweet foods and in particular, fruit juices. 54.55 While our results may, in part, be explained by taste preference characteristics due to the metabolic effects of nicotine, this does not resolve the differences found between smokers and non-smokers in their intake of other non-sweet foods.

High intakes of dietary fiber are suspected to be a preventive factor in colon cancer, ⁵⁶ and the National Cancer Institute recommends that individuals consume 20–30 gm of dietary fiber daily. ⁵⁷ Past research based on NHANES II data shows that intake of dietary fiber in the US is much lower than this recommendation, ³⁷ and we show that smokers have among the lowest intakes. While tobacco use is not known to be related to bowel cancer, our results suggest that smokers could be at higher risk for this cancer through related dietary lifestyle habits. Furthermore, our results indicate that this lower intake results from lower consumption of several key sources ⁵⁸ of dietary fiber: vegetables, whole grains, and fruits.

Consistent with past research,^{30,32} we found that smokers have, for the most part, lower intakes of vitamin A than non-smokers. While smokers have 25 times the risk of developing lung cancer compared to non-smokers, both low dietary intake and serum vitamin A and/or carotenoids have

been shown to increase smoking adjusted lung cancer risk in the range of 1.3 to 2.7 times. 13,14,16,19-25 Furthermore, several studies have shown that low dietary or serum vitamin A/carotenoid levels increase lung cancer risk (range: 1.3–8.1) among smokers, including the heaviest and those who have smoked the longest. 12,16,18,20,22,24,25 Evidence of dietary protection is strongest for carotenoids (from plants) versus retinol sources (from animals).59 A separate measure of the carotenoid or retinol composition of foods was not available in our database, but our finding that smokers consume fewer fruits or vegetables high in vitamin A, and fewer fruits and vegetables overall, suggest that smokers have lower carotenoid intakes than non-smokers. Stryker, et al,28 have suggested that smokers need to increase their intake of carotenoids to achieve blood levels comparable to their non-smoking counterparts. Our results show that smokers, who may gain some protection from lung cancer by high carotenoid intake, are less likely than non-smokers to be consuming carotenoid-dense foods. Furthermore, former smokers, who enjoy gradually declining lung cancer risk, should be encouraged toward improved nutrition in an effort to possibly accelerate the decline.

A few reports have suggested that folate may be protective for both lung and cervical cancer.^{60–62} While our results with respect to intake differences between smokers

^{*}High value due to 3 individuals with unusually large intakes of liver and/or eggs and/or carrots.

and non-smokers are less striking for folate than for vitamin C, such differences should be noted in that they fit into a general pattern of lower intake of fruits, vegetables and high fiber grains among smokers.

Questions remain as to whether specific dietary factors such as vitamin A, carotenoids, and vitamin C are the operative cancer protective factors in foods or whether some other yet unknown factor(s) is responsible. Studies have shown that intake of cruciferous vegetables, fruits and vegetables, and especially yellow-orange and green vegetables have protective effects not only for lung cancer, but also for breast, colon, prostate, bladder, oral cavity, stomach and cervical cancers.⁵⁶ Our results show that intake of all these foods is significantly lower among smokers. This suggests that smokers may be at higher risk for many cancers, some of which are non-smoking-related. Of particular interest is our finding that for several of the cancer protective food groups, there are modest but consistent trends for intake to decrease as cigarette consumption increases. Thus, the more one tends to smoke, the more one increases cancer risk, the less one tends to consume fruits, vegetables, and high fiber grains. These findings are similar to that of Schoenborn and Benson⁸ regarding other lifestyle factors such as sleeping less than six hours per night, skipping breakfast, being less physically active, being sedentary, and drinking heavily.

One possible explanation for lower intakes of nutrients and some foods among smokers may be that smokers compared to non-smokers tend to be greater consumers of alcoholic beverages⁵ and, therefore, may replace calories and nutrients from food sources with those from drinks. Because we had no data regarding the contribution of alcohol to either the caloric or carbohydrate content of the 24-hour recalls we analyzed, we were not able to explore this possibility, and past research yields conflicting results.^{29,63} Further research is necessary to determine whether alcohol consumption plays a significant role in the lower intake of nutrients and foods found among smokers in this research.

Our findings of lower intakes of vitamin A, vitamin C, fiber, and folate among smokers are correlated in that all these nutrients are common to vegetables, fruits, and grains, foods for which we also found lower consumption among smokers. The task of understanding how nutrients and/or foods protect or promote cancer while considering other risk factors such as smoking is difficult. We have shown that smokers, who are known to be at increased risk for several cancers, have lower intake of nutrients and foods associated with cancer prevention than non-smokers. The evidence is clear that smoking is a habit which leads to or is lead by other lifestyle practices, and we have shown that yet another important health habit is associated with smoking: food intake. This suggests that analyses in future epidemiological research regarding cancer prevention or etiology account for the possible confounding of smoking and diet.

Smoking cessation is the single biggest prevention measure for purposes of cancer prevention and control, particularly with respect to lung cancer.² Individuals who smoke are clearly at greatly increased risk from their tobacco use. However, this study suggests that they may be at some slightly additional risk from dietary intake low in critical nutrients. While more research is needed regarding smoking and diet, smokers and ex-smokers may be well advised to increase their intake of fruits, vegetables, and high fiber grains. In the meantime, physicians and the public should be aware that some smokers have low intakes of foods or nutrients associated with decreased cancer risk.

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